OF MICHIGAN
DEC 31 1958
EDUCATION
LIBRARY

EDUCATIONAL HORIZONS

ERNS IN AMERICAN EDUCATION

1958 VOL. XXXVII, NO. 1

Official Publication of
PI LAMBDA THETA

PURPOSE

Pi Lambda Theta is a national honor and professional association for women in education.

Its purpose shall be to maintain the highest standards of scholarship and **professional preparation** and to foster professional spirit and fellowship by

WORKING actively to further the cause of democratic education;

CO-OPERATING in the solution of problems which interpenetrate various fields **of knowledge;**

ENCOURAGING intercultural understandings;

STRIVING for a clear understanding of local, state, national, and international **problems and stimulating** active participation in their solution;

ENCOURAGING graduate work and stimulating research.

EDUCATION
LJ
145
.P59
vol. 37-38
1958-1960.

EDUCATIONAL HORIZONS

123
8853

OFFICIAL PUBLICATION OF PI LAMBDA THETA

Vol. XXXVII FALL, 1958 No. 1

The Gifted and the Retarded in Historical Perspective ..... *Walter W. Cook* 2

Teaching and the Talented Teacher ..... *Jean Wellington and C. Burleigh Wellington* 11

Science, Tradition, and the Curriculum ..... *Herbert Clark Hubler* 16

This Is English Instruction Today ..... *Marjorie Southard Roberts* 21

Pi Lambda Theta Fellows 25

The President's Page ..... *Sylvia Vopni* 26

National Board and National Committees 29

Chapter Presidents and Correspondents 30

Opinions expressed in this publication are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the official views of the organization.

Editor

M. VIRGINIA BIGGY

Office of the Superintendent of Schools
Concord, Massachusetts

Address all correspondence pertaining to subscriptions and mailing to Pi Lambda Theta, Portland Building, Room 307, 1129 Vermont Avenue N.W., Washington 5, D.C. *Educational Horizons* is published in Fall, Winter, Spring, and Summer. The subscription price is $2.00 a year; single copies are 40 cents. The office of publication is 450 Ahnaip Street, Menasha, Wisconsin. Entered as second class matter, at the post office at Menasha, Wisconsin, under the Act of August 24, 1912. Accepted for mailing at a special rate of postage under the provisions of Sec. 34-40 Par. (D) in the Act of October 3, 1917. Second-class postage paid at Menasha, Wisconsin.

Printed in the United States of America

The Gifted and the Retarded in Historical Perspective

WALTER W. COOK*

THE CURRENT TIDE of public interest in public education is welcomed by all competent schoolmen—even the panic-striking books, pamphlets, and journal articles crying that we are neglecting our gifted children, that Johnny can't read, that children can't spell, that schools have no discipline; written with sweeping generalizations made from two or three horrible examples and showing no more psychological insight than is commonly apparent at a supermarket or over the bridge table; blaming the whole sorry mess on that overworked, underpaid, and unappreciated group of men and women who have dedicated their lives to the improvement of public education.

Even these articles can leave some good in their wake, if we are not panicked into indefensible patterns of school organization and procedure. It is important in these times that we keep our eyes on the goal—at least twelve years of schooling for all the children of all the people; that we take *every child* where he is and develop his capacities to as high a level as possible in the time we have. Let us resolve to make certain that this tumult and shouting leads to more skillful ways of providing for individual differences; more enriched programs for all children; enough classrooms for every child; a wealth of instructional materials—books, books, and more books in the school library, in every classroom and in every home; a class size that is manageable; a work load that does not leave the teacher too physically and emotionally exhausted for good teaching; and above all, educational procedures based on greater insight into how the creative power, imagination, and the thrill of learning can be released in all children.

Reactions which some schoolmen make to the flood of criticisms indicate no greater depth of psychological insight than that shown by the admirals, journalists, history professors, and businessmen who criticize. The articles in lay journals and newspapers, both pro and con, rarely get above the emotional level. The layman never has an opportunity to learn: how great is the range of ability in the common schools; why retardation and acceleration are not an answer to the problem of variability; why general ability grouping is not an answer; how the concept of the passing mark and the textbook distort educational processes into mere mechanical memorization; how and under what conditions the teacher is able to maximize individual

* WALTER W. COOK is dean of the College of Education, University of Minnesota.

Reprinted by permission of the author and publisher from the *Phi Delta Kappan*, XXXIX, No. 6. March, 1958.

development in heterogeneous groups; what the equipment and library resources of an adequate classroom should be; and, above all, the personality and intellectual qualifications of an adequate teacher.

Despite space limitation, some historical perspective seems necessary. Perhaps the most important factor in shaping our attitudes and policies in education is the graded textbook. American schools are predominantly "textbook" schools. The majority of teachers feel lost without a uniform textbook in the hands of every pupil. Education is conceived by many as a process of memorizing the content of textbooks. Limited goals are set in terms of the content of textbooks. Examinations are based upon the content of textbooks. Educational progress is measured in terms of pages covered in the textbook, and the intellectual ability required for success at a given grade level or in a given subject is determined by the textbook. The basic assumption underlying textbook procedure is that pupils can be classified into homogeneous groups and taught uniform material by a standardized procedure. The textbook has a place in education, but these assumptions inhibit the process of making "schooling" truly educational.

Planned for the Assembly Line

Plans devised to make assembly-line educational procedures operate successfully have had a long history. The first set of graded textbooks in America, the *McGuffey Readers,* came from the press in 1837. In 1848, the first eight-room building was constructed to house a graded elementary school. By 1870, the schools of the United States—even the one-room rural schools—had been graded. Achievement standards —determined by the difficulty of the graded text, which in turn was determined by the subjective judgment of textbook authors—served as the basis for promotion. The rate of failure was high. Even in 1920, it was common to fail over thirty per cent of the pupils in the primary grades; and by the time the children had finished the intermediate grades, over fifty per cent had failed at least once. During the early 1900's "laggards in our schools" became a matter of national concern. Unfortunately the chief argument against it was the great expense of keeping slow-learning pupils in school so long. Early research in education dealt with this problem. Early remedies consisted of establishing minimum essentials in the various subjects, eliminating useless material from textbooks, and graduating the difficulty of textbooks on a more objective basis.

Perhaps it is desirable to mention the panaceas for variability recommended and adopted in the early years of the century, lest we repeat the same mistakes. All forms of acceleration and retardation were tried—semi-annual promotion, quarterly promotion, subject promotion, and special promotion. In some schools an attempt was made to hold standards constant and to get uniformity of achievement by increasing the amount of instruction for the slow pupils, as in the Batavia Plan, the Assisting-Teacher (Teacher-Aide) Plan, and the Vacation-Classes Plan. Other schools received recognition by holding the course of study constant and differentiating the amount of time required for slow, medium, and fast learning pupils, as in the North Denver Plan, the Cambridge Plan, and the Portland Plan. Other schools got their names in print by holding time constant, and differentiating the course of study for slow, medium, and fast learning pupils, as in the Santa Barbara and Baltimore

Plans. Still other schools tried dividing the course of study into units of specified activities and achievement, permitting each pupil to advance at his own rate in each subject, as in the Pueblo Plan, the Winnetka Plan, and the Dalton Plan. By 1920, group intelligence tests had been developed to the place where Detroit attempted to attain homogeneous instruction groups through X, Y, and Z grouping, on the basis of capacity as revealed by group intelligence tests. Other schools used achievement tests and teachers' marks for homogeneous grouping. In 1936, the National Society for the Study of Education devoted Part I of its *Thirty-Fifth Yearbook* to a critical evaluation of practices in the grouping of pupils. General ability grouping was criticized and defended on educational grounds, philosophical grounds, social grounds, and psychological grounds—all questions were raised except: How homogeneous are the groups in the particular subject being taught?

Before we try more administrative panaceas for making our assembly-line type of school machinery operate more effectively, let us examine the facts of individual differences, trait differences, and the process of intellectual development.

The Extent of Variability

When a random group of six-year-olds enters the first grade, two per cent of them will be below the average four-year-olds in general mental development, and two per cent will be above the average eight-year-old. Disregarding the extreme two per cent at either end, there is a four-year range in general intelligence. By the time this group has reached the age of twelve (seventh grade level), the range will have increased to almost eight years. As long as all the children of all the people remain in school, the range continues to increase. When the educational achievement of a typical sixth grade class is measured, we find a range of approximately eight years in reading comprehension, vocabulary, arithmetic computation, mechanics of English composition, and other forms of achievement. In almost any sixth grade class will be found a pupil with first or second grade reading ability, and another with eleventh or twelfth grade reading ability. In any grade above the primary level will be found the complete range of elementary school achievement.

At the high-school and college levels, Learned and Wood have given us an answer. When the *General Culture Battery*, consisting of achievement tests in general science, foreign literature, fine arts and social studies, was administered to high-school and college seniors in Pennsylvania, it was found that the upper ten per cent of high-school seniors were above the college senior median and could have been given B. A. degrees without lowering the intellectual standards of such degrees. It was also found that the lower ten per cent of college seniors were below the high-school senior median.

The Public Should Learn the Facts

Although these facts should be basic data in educational thinking and call for a revision of our postulates, they are largely ignored. The idea that the process of schooling *must* consist of homogeneous groups of pupils receiving uniform instruction by mass educational techniques from uniform textbooks is the axiom which prevents constructive approaches to the problem of variability in the classroom. It leads to the further assumptions that grade levels should signify rather definite

states of educational achievement; that the course of study for a grade is the prescribed academic requirement, to be administered uniformly to all pupils; that a pupil should not be promoted to a grade until he is able to do the work outlined for that grade; that when individual differences are provided for by good teaching, all pupils can be brought up to standard; that maintaining a passing mark results in homogeneous instructional groups; and that when relative homogeneity does not prevail, it is a result of poor teaching or lax standards. These assumptions underlie most of the criticisms of public education. These assumptions are contrary to fact. *It is time the public learned the facts.* The range of ability in the classes of the elementary and high school is so great that if the slow learner in the eighth grade were demoted to the fourth, he would still be a slow learner in the fourth, and below the median of the class. If the top pupil of the fourth grade were accelerated to the eighth, he would still be a bright pupil in the eighth, and above the median of that class.

The Acceleration Fallacy

What happens when the bright pupil is accelerated, and the slow pupil is retarded? The bright pupil—the one who profits from an educational environment—is eliminated from school first. He spends less time there, while the slow pupil who can profit least from educational environment spends the most time there. If the educational procedure of a class is such that the bright pupil is bored and unstimulated, we may be certain that the pupils of medium ability and of low ability are equally bored. A teacher who understands modern methods of instruction, working with a class of limited size and with adequate instructional material—especially books, books, and more books—makes a class exciting for the bright, the dull, and the average.

What happens in a school system with strict policies of promotion is revealed by two instructional surveys of the Austin, Minnesota, Public Schools, one in 1921 and the other in 1951. The same tests were used in both surveys. In 1921, 54 per cent of the pupils entering the seventh grade were over-age and had been retarded at least one year. The median I.Q. of the elementary school at that time was 94. In 1951, 4 per cent of the children entering the seventh grade were over-age. The median I.Q. on the same tests was 111. This I.Q. was checked by another test—a modern test—and found to be correct. Hence, the intellectual level of an elementary school was reduced from a potential median I.Q. of 111 to a median I.Q. of 94 simply by hoarding the dull pupils. At the time when the median I.Q. of the elementary school was 94, the median I.Q. of the high school graduating class was 129. The over-age pupils dropped out of school in the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades. There was no one beyond the tenth grade with an I.Q. of 100 or less. Of course, the highly select group of seniors with a median I.Q. of 129 could do college work successfully. In 1951, when the median I.Q. of the elementary school was 111, the median I.Q. of the high-school graduating class was 117. Still some selection, but most of the children finished high school. It is true that the high-school graduate of 1951 was not as able to do collegiate work as his counterpart in 1921. High-school graduation is no longer an adequate criterion of ability to do college work, nor should it be. This is not to deny the colleges the responsibility for estab-

lishing standards of entrance which will ensure a college level of intellectual work. Unless we adopt a policy denying intellectual development to a large group of our citizens, this must be the policy. The surest way to lower the standards of the common schools is to hoard the dull pupils; to eliminate them is hardly recommended by even our most aristocratic critics.

The effect of promotion policies on the variability of classes and achievement standards is also commonly misunderstood. It is generally believed that the trend toward universal promotion has increased the variability of upper grade classes, lowered their average achievement, and reduced the incentive of pupils to work hard. Research reveals the contrary to be true. The excess of slow pupils in the schools with high promotion standards lowers the intellectual level of the classes, and achievement is significantly less. The excess of retarded pupils in the upper grades aggravates the range of ability problem, and the variability of classes is as great as when universal promotion is practiced. Furthermore, studies have consistently shown that the slow-learning pupil achieves more when promoted regularly than when retarded.

Trait Differences and Ability Grouping

The effectiveness of general-ability grouping depends upon the relative magnitude of trait differences, that is, the variability of the individual from his subject of highest achievement to that of his lowest. Ability grouping is based on the hypothesis that the pupil varies little in achievement from subject to subject. Evidence from several overlapping fields of investigation refutes this hypothesis. The first is concerned with basic theories of mental organization and primary mental abilities; the second with studies of the so-called "idiot savant"; the third with asymmetry of development in normal and gifted individuals; the fourth with direct measures of trait variability; the fifth with evidence of correlation between traits and areas of achievement; and the sixth with overlapping in educational achievement of groups which have been made homogeneous with respect to some measure of general ability. Tentative generalizations drawn from the research of Hull may be stated as follows: Trait variability in the typical individual is 80 per cent as great as individual variability in his age group. Trait differences are normally distributed. Some individuals are twice as variable as others, and there is no relationship between general level of ability and of the amount of trait variability.

Under the most favorable circumstances, that is, when pupils are grouped in X, Y, and Z fashion on the basis of an achievement test battery, which is heavily weighted in favor of reading and arithmetic scores, we may expect a reduction of about 20 per cent in reading and arithmetic variability. The extreme X and Z groups will overlap approximately 80 per cent. Instead of a range of eight years in reading ability at the sixth grade level, the teacher has, after grouping, a range of six and four-tenths years. In other subjects, such as art, music, handwriting, and spelling, the reduction of range approaches zero. Consequently, when grouping is practiced, it must be on the basis of status and needs in specific subjects. Pupils should be grouped differently in each subject area. In the elementary school, such groups should be flexible in organization and specific in purpose. At the high-school and college levels, grouping for mathematics, science, English, and other areas can be

more permanent and have the nature of honors courses. The pupil should enter an honors class and remain there only on the basis of achievement. To label a child as either retarded or gifted on the basis of an intelligence test is to do him a gross educational disservice; if low, he is discouraged from trying; if high, he feels hard work is a reflection on his superiority. Prognosis should be based on specific achievement in a given area and only on that basis. The time for scrambling different types of achievement in varying amounts and calling it intelligence should have passed by now.

It is widely believed by laymen that instructional groups can be made more homogeneous in achievement through effective teaching. Education is conceived to consist of learning such things as are found in textbooks—spelling words, type problems in arithmetic, causes and results of wars, names of the states and their capitals, explorers and where they explored, countries and their products, and the seven basic food groups. To such, good teaching is conceived to consist of assigning, threatening, drilling, rewarding, and punishing, until the pupils can verbalize these facts. The process of providing for individual differences is assumed to mean getting all pupils to memorize the facts required by the examination in sufficient amount to exceed the passing mark. What is the harm in this simple conception of the schooling process which substitutes information for education?

Complexity of Task Affects Variability

This question concerns us with the effect of a period of learning upon individual differences. Are individuals more alike or less alike with respect to a given ability after a period of instruction? The research on this problem leads us to the following generalization: If the responses to be learned are sufficiently simple that a high proportion of the group can master them during the period of learning, the variability of the group becomes less; but if the task is complex, involving the higher mental processes to the extent that the abilities of the most apt members of the group are taxed during the period of learning, then the variability of the group increases.

Limited educational goals in the form of lists of facts and type problems which enable the pupil to answer examination questions of the *name, describe, define, who, what, when, and where* variety and which may be memorized in a rote sense for examination purposes to give a semblance of uniformity of achievement in meeting the requirements of a passing mark, result in highly temporary learning. Our early objective tests tended to emphasize this type of learning. Tests of retention administered from three months to three years after a course such as this was completed revealed from 30 to 90 per cent loss. The forgetting curves of such learning closely approximate those of nonsense materials.

Although rapid forgetting is the rule when factual tests are repeated, it has been demonstrated that tests of problem-solving ability, reading comprehension, the application of principles to new situations, organizing ability, and the interpretation of new data show an *increase* in ability with the passing of time. When learning is structured and meaningful and involves problem-solving mental processes, the learning is relatively permanent. Such learning involves unlimited goals, and when the abilities of all members of a group are taxed, individual differences increase during the period of learning. The conclusion seems justified that the emphasis on

the process of striving for limited goals, homogeneity of achievement, and getting all pupils over the passing mark tends to encourage teachers to set limited goals for instruction which results in temporary factual learning. Our conclusion must be that the more effective the instruction—the more adequately we meet the needs of all pupils—*the more heterogeneous groups become.*

The central problem of meeting the needs of the slow pupil and the gifted pupil, as well as the average pupil, is how best to meet the needs of individuals in groups of widely varying ability. Since all instructional groups vary widely in interests and ability, it seems wiser to attempt to develop techniques for meeting the needs in such groups instead of constantly striving for a homogeneity which cannot be achieved. This calls for changes in beliefs, attitudes, and understandings which will result in more defensible administrative and curriculum policies. Let us suggest some of them.

Administrative Policies

The administrative policy should have two purposes: (1) to make it possible for the teacher to know the pupil well enough to meet his needs and (2) to provide instructional material with a range of difficulty and interest appeal commensurate with the needs of the instructional group:

(a) The size of classes must be reduced to not more than twenty-five pupils. The practice of giving each elementary teacher a class of from thirty to forty pupils and having the high-school teacher meet from 150 to 250 different pupils a day, with instruction based on a uniform textbook, precludes the possibility of meeting individual needs.

(b) A systematic testing program revealing status and growth in the basic intellectual skills and abilities (not facts) required for optimum adjustment in the culture must be instituted, with the results for each pupil from kindergarten to college graphically portrayed. The purposes of these tests are not the traditional ones—those of holding teacher and pupils to standards or as a basis for promotion or marking; the purpose is rather to enable the teacher to know more about the pupil, the books he can read, the type of problems he can solve, the amount of improvement that can be expected—in short, to know the educational experiences that he needs.

(c) A permanent record folder, containing in addition to the superimposed profiles of the test results, the health record, samples of handwriting, creative written work, and other evidences of achievements showing the pupil's development from kindergarten on, should be in the hands of each teacher.

(d) Each teacher should have an opportunity for a personal conference with the parents of each pupil not less than twice each year in order that both the parents and teacher may understand the pupil better.

(e) The primary basis for grouping children should be physical and social development (probably best indicated by chronological age), since these are the most obvious criteria of status in childhood groups. A child should live and work with the group he most obviously belongs with—one which accepts him and which he accepts.

(f) There must be grouping within classes on the basis of status and needs in spe-

cific learning areas. These groups should be flexible as to size and duration and specific in purpose.

(g) The practice of labeling school books by grade should be discontinued. A code number indicating to the teacher the difficulty of the material is sufficient.

(h) In both the elementary and high school, the practice of having a teacher instruct the same group of pupils from three to six years should be encouraged.

(i) At the high-school level there should be special honors courses for students who demonstrate unusual ability in mathematics, science, language, and other subjects.

(j) In the high school the practice of integrating English and the social studies in a four-to-six year coordinated sequence with two- or three-hour daily periods in a laboratory workshop should be encouraged.

(k) A wealth of instructional material should be provided in each classroom. It should have a range of difficulty, interest appeal, and content commensurate with the range of abilities and interests of the class. It must be placed in the classroom and not in the library or other special room. Perhaps the best way to meet the needs of the potential geniuses in our classes is to place them in intellectual contact with the geniuses of the ages. This can be done through books. This should be an item of first priority in any school system. The most serious indictment that can be brought against public education today is its failure to furnish the teacher with adequate books and instructional material and to surround every pupil with a wealth of reading materials of both a literary and factual nature. Textbooks are necessary, but they are far from sufficient as instructional material.

Curriculum Policies

An understanding of individual and trait differences is essential for determining adequate curriculum policies. Such policies should: (1) provide flexibility of requirements in order that the potential unskilled laborer and the potential research physicist will not be held to the same requirements; (2) free the teacher to plan for the welfare and optimum development of each pupil; and (3) broaden the curriculum sufficiently to recognize and reward the great variety of aptitudes and combinations of aptitudes and interests of students, enabling each to discover his strengths and weaknesses and preparing him to find his place in our complex society with its multiplicity of demands.

(a) Curriculum content should be organized around large units or problems in the social science and natural science areas. Each unit should be organized and developed with the following purposes in mind: (1) to make possible an appeal to many different interests and to utilize to the maximum the great variety of abilities; (2) to make possible the utilization of a wealth of reading materials selected to ensure a wide range of difficulty, content appeal, and points of view; (3) to provide possibilities for use of a wide variety of stimulating materials from books, both literary and factual, moving pictures and other visual aids, field trips, museums, journals, and observations from the world of work; (4) to stimulate and make meaningful a wide range of activities in reading for different purposes, use of reference materials, writing reports and letters, interviewing people with special knowledge, preparing and presenting oral reports, planning, organizing materials,

seeing relationships, developing generalizations, dramatization, construction projects, appreciation of music and the arts in their proper relation to life, quantitative thinking, designing graphic portrayal of data, evaluating evidence, reading maps and diagrams, assuming individual responsibility, cooperating in group activities—all to the purpose of developing understandings, ideals, beliefs, attitudes, and above all, sustaining intellectual interests.

(b) The grade levels at which certain knowledge, skills, and abilities should be learned cannot be determined with any degree of specifi[ci]ty. The graded lists of skills and knowledge commonly provided in textbooks serve to provide a helpful sequence of materials in developing skills in the various sub-groups of abilities; they furnish material which should be emphasized as limitation in a skill becomes evident, and they should be used as a check-list for diagnostic purposes. It should not be assumed that these listed and itemized goals are to be achieved in a 1, 2, 3 fashion, out of their functional setting and natural context, once and for all time, and that all instruction should be organized around these piecemeal itemized goals. Perhaps half the school time should be devoted to a systematic development of the skills necessary in the development of units and related to them as much as possible. The other half of the time should be devoted to the meanings and relationships involved in understanding the social sciences and natural sciences.

(c) The pupil should have a large share of responsibility in setting the immediate goal toward which he strives and for evaluating his own work in terms of this goal. This will help ensure that the pupil develops high ideals of performance and will focus attention on the next step in his progress.

References

Anastasi, A. *Differential Psychology.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1937.

———. "Practice and Variability: A Study of Psychological Methods," *Psychological Monographs,* XLV (1934), 1-55.

Burr, Marvin Y. *A Study of Homogenous Grouping.* ("Contributions to Education," No. 457.) New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1931.

Cook, Walter B. *Austin School Survey: Part II, The Instructional Program.* Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, 1952.

———. *Grouping and Promotion in the Elementary School.* ("Individualization of Instruction," No. 2.) Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, 1941.

———. "The Functions of Measurement in the Facilitation of Learning," Chap. I in *Educational Measurement,* ed. by E. Lindquist. Washington, D.C.: The American Council on Education, 1950.

Hollingshead, A. D. *An Evaluation of the Use of Certain Educational and Mental Measurements for the Purpose of Classification.* ("Contributions to Education," No. 302.) New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928.

Hull, Clark L. "Variability in Amount of Different Traits Possessed by the Individual," *Journal of Educational Psychology,* XVIII (1927), 97-104.

Klene, Vivian and Branson, E. P. "Trial Promotion versus Failure," *Educational Research Bulletin* (Los Angeles Public Schools), VIII, 11.

Learned, William S. and Wood, Ben D. *The Student and His Knowledge.* New York: The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1938.

McNemar, Quinn. *The Revision of the Stanford-Binet Scale.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1942.

Terman, Lewis M. and Merrill, Maud A. *Measuring Intelligence.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1937.

Tyler, R. W. "Permanence of Learning," *Journal of Higher Education,* VIII (1937), 136-40.

West, J. E. "Twin Examination Assumptions," *Journal of Higher Education,* VIII (1937), 136-40.

Teaching and the Talented Teacher

JEAN WELLINGTON and
C. BURLEIGH WELLINGTON*

AS WE OBSERVE many classes and talk with teachers and administrators, we are impressed with one thought which pervades much of their thinking about teaching. "We've got to cover the material! We have to get through the book, you know." We are prompted to ask why. Why must you cover the material, cover the book, get through the syllabus? And always they answer, "Well, the next teacher expects that they will have had that much." Or, "The students have to pass the College Boards or the Regents or the departmental examinations." And so we teach upon a treadmill where outside expectations set us that awful task of "cover the material, cover the book, get through the syllabus." And always the first emphasis must then be upon information. To teach understanding and knowledge falls second to the first objective. We wonder. Is such an objective so important?

INFORMATION

In the first place, information is a nebulous thing. Who is to say what is information? Much of what is taught is presented as gospel, as universally-accepted information. Yet we venture that at least 90 per cent of this information is highly questionable and that experts could be discovered who would disagree with the information and thus prove it controversial instead of the truth. Most information is questionable; most of what is presented as information is in reality someone's opinion. Because much information is presented as fact, the student fails to draw any distinction between opinion and fact—to "pass everything through a sieve and lodge nothing in his head on mere authority" (Montaigne). Even if a teacher were able to demonstrate that everything he teaches is fact, still his opinion would be strongly in evidence just in the choosing of one fact in preference to another.

As a second point, let us realize that, if a certain body of information, a certain book, or a certain syllabus is presented to students in order that the next teachers will find them well primed, it is a vast assumption that they "learn" the material. Because a book is covered in history is no indication that, the next fall, when the students move from ancient to modern times, they will remember very much about the ancient. Understanding demands emotional acceptance, and we must realize that a great deal of the information offered is not accepted. A student must act—be personally involved—in order really to learn. If he is not stimulated to act (but only

* JEAN WELLINGTON is a lecturer in education with a specialty in guidance and counseling at Tufts University, Boston, where her husband, C. BURLEIGH WELLINGTON, is an assistant professor of education with a specialty in secondary-school methods and curriculum.

to memorize), most of what he memorizes will soon be forgotten. Even the parts that he retains will remain irrelevant bits of information (which for some reason he remembers) unless he acts upon them.

A third idea about information is that all students cannot possibly be expected to "learn" the same things. One student has perception about one idea; another student, about another idea. Real learning will be in relation to these areas of perception.

Knowledge

Thus, we must discount the gaining of information as the sole end of teaching. It fails to cause the student to know but leads him only to memorize and add isolated pieces of information (which he cannot use) to what he already thinks. It is through understanding and learning that the student finally knows something. They involve personal feelings as opposed to intellectual assimilation of information. Understanding and learning, then, take place when there is personal perception of an idea. This perception implies that there is something that the learner needs to know —that he feels a desire for. Perception implies an instability—the feeling that something is unbalanced unless learning takes place. The perception, in other words, strikes the individual, rings a bell inside him, and he feels off-balance because he does not know. As he defines what this perception means to him (what he needs to know), he moves forward in understanding and learning.

The learner attempts to come forth to knowledge from participation in this process of understanding and learning. Knowledge may be understood information—information that the learner has needed and come to understand within his own opinions and attitudes. Knowledge may be, second, an opinion believed; that is, since many questions have no real answer, the opinion chosen and believed by the individual may be knowledge. Or, third, knowledge may be a personal decision for present or future action. The individual who gains knowledge cares about what he has discovered enough that he will put it to use in his life or will function as though he believes it.

Teaching for information *alone* omits a great deal, and the absorption by students of information only leaves them just half-developed. Information was meant to be used. It is of value only when it is used by students for real creative thinking.

Method

Knowledge, then, which is individual and personal seems the only valid and realistic end for teaching. Method must be built upon this aim, end, or desire for student knowledge. A teacher was teaching spelling by the spelling-bee "method." After the contest was completed, the teacher requested that the students write from dictation the words of the bee. He read, "Separate—sep-ar-ate. Definitely—def-in-ite-ly." But the students began muttering to themselves and, when asked their difficulty, explained that they could not write the words. Now the teacher knew neither what he was trying to teach (oral spelling, written spelling, or syllables) nor why he used a spelling bee. Therefore, he abandoned the oral contest and adopted dictation to students at the blackboard. Again, he failed to know why he did so. Thus, the study of method will help fashion teachers who teach proficiently —who are (in truth) talented teachers—if they know surely why they teach as they

do and if they are prepared to explain in exact terms their ways and their whys.

Although we study method, then, we cannot logically commence with the different ways of teaching. We must begin where all good teaching really begins—with the reasons for doing one thing in preference to another. A way of teaching is a product or the result of something else. It is an outcome of basic thinking about reasons for teaching. The teacher, knowing what he wants to accomplish generally, may then add specifics and finally decide *how* best to do what he desires. A basic understanding of where one is going in teaching is essential to the establishment of a method which is really workable for any given teacher. Then, when a problem arises, the teacher uses his basic knowledge of his goal as a sounding board for deciding what he ought to do and how he ought to do it. Any sound and realistic method of teaching, then, has a firm foundation in the aim of the teacher. Knowledge for the student is the only foundation which seems firm enough to be such a basis.

A Blend As Method

The teacher who wishes to promote knowledge about given subject matter must not underestimate the mind-set of the pupils he will teach. His method, then, is to blend the two—to mix and mold together his own aim for knowledge with the basic needs and desires already present in his students. As we attempt to build a method, then, we meet the raging storm of the "needs school" versus the "subject matter school." Actually, the controversy between them is an illusion. There is no real dichotomy between needs and subject matter. The point is that the talented teacher blends the two. He demonstrates to the students how subject matter meets their needs; and thus, he leads them toward knowledge. He shows that knowledge of chemistry offers them more for the solution of health problems than a paper-backed "health book." He shows that knowledge of biology presents them far more for understanding sex problems than television. He shows that knowledge of literature—English and foreign—offers more about working out social and moral problems than the rumors of the gang. In other words, he himself thinks about Hamlet, and then he points out the elements in Hamlet which describe or relate to what students care about—what lies in their adolescent minds. He offers to students those ideas which meet their needs that are found within the subject matter to be studied. Thus, the student's needs are considered in arousing his perceptions, and the teacher's aim for knowledge-within-subject-matter is achieved for the very reason that the student meets his needs as he studies.

The teacher may commence a study of the stars with these ideas.

> There is a legend about Orion which says he was a giant and hunter who was blinded. An oracle suggested he expose his eyes to the rays of the rising sun, and his sight was restored. Afterward he lived as a hunter and after his death was placed in the heavens as a constellation. You can see his belt up there beginning around February first if you look. Of course, the only time you people look at the stars is when you're walking with your best girl or boy friend. Then they are just romantic, though some of you can find the big dipper and a few, the little dipper. If you were lost at sea, or even in the woods, stars could help you. Other than that, you probably wonder if they have any value in your life except to promote romance.

But the teacher hopes to broaden horizons and to guide the young people to discover new areas of interest as they delve into their study. Knowledge of stars re-

mains not at the level of young love, dates, or social acceptance, but it expands in all directions. Literally, then, student minds and teacher-desire for thinking become blended.

The real point in studying anything of man's cultural heritage is to enlighten a modern mind to ways of solving problems that others have already met. All problems revolve eventually about the basic desires of every human being. Thus, learning subject matter means, as we have said, perceiving, thinking, and (finally) gaining personalized knowledge. But the perception occurs only when the mind senses the relationship to itself, that is, to its own basic desires. Here are every student's ready-made *problems* which he longs to solve. In creating a blending, then, the teacher presents those elements, thoughts, and activities in the material to be studied which point up new ideas about the basic desires in the student's mind. This is his method of teaching.

Togetherness

We turn back for a moment to a prerequisite to the blending of teacher-aim and student-mind. Here one all-inclusive element must be present—the aspect of working together. Two persons or groups may aspire to progress mutually only if they work to promote a sense of togetherness. The atmosphere created of working together in the classroom, as it engenders in the youth a sense of its presence, automatically meets all of his basic desires in that situation. He perceives the love of teacher and peers, security within the group, his belonging to it, and success as he plays his part. He, in turn, offers love. A sense of togetherness in the classroom atmosphere frees the adolescent so that he is able to admit his basic desires and to seek actively to meet them in his learning and studying. Because his basic desires in the class situation are met, the adolescent is ready to discover new answers and is aroused, as new areas of perception open to him, to dig deeply into the rest of man's knowledge as it (in turn) meets his basic desires by solving his problems and offering him new understandings.

There must be an impression of mutual help and respect, therefore. The teacher cannot gain his desired result if he lacks faith in his youngsters—real faith that they possess the ability to accomplish something and that they will work as determinedly as ever at learning what is important to them. Thus, together with the teacher, the student must become a part of all that touches him in the classroom including discipline, planning, and evaluation, again with the purpose of promoting knowledge in these areas.

Problem-Solving

The method of teaching for the talented teacher, then, in an atmosphere of working with students, is for him to blend his aim for knowledge with student needs and desires. Many books in the field are titled "methods of teaching," thus assuming that there are numerous methods, each one as valuable as the other. We have concluded that there is only one method. We continue this trend and state that the means of achieving the blend or method is again one single means. That means is problem-solving.

Recognizing the basic desires of adolescents (thus understanding their minds

already filled), it seems that the one way to lead them to desire to learn and know is to help them to feel a problem in relation to their basic desires and thus to feel a need for an answer. Through solving their problems and finding the answers or tentative answers, the thrill of learning and discovering is experienced by the students.

The teacher plays the role of guide; he suggests and introduces problems. However, he then allows the students to experiment on isolating problems and on judging those most relevant to the class members. Of course, it is easier for the teacher to do this. It takes a skillful teacher to exert the necessary direction without becoming the dictator and decision-maker. Referring again to the teacher's aim, he must keep in mind that making a decision constitutes knowledge—his aim for his students. If he fails to allow the necessary freedom to his students, he defeats his own purpose. If allowed freedom, the students will flounder. But they flounder toward the goal desired for them.

The final outcome of class problem-solving is not class agreement. One of the most common mistakes in pursuing this means of teaching is to believe that class agreement or a majority vote is necessary. Each student is unique; and, although adolescents have much in common, they are different from each other. The purpose is to promote thinking and knowledge, but it may often be different knowledge for each student. Knowledge will never be final. Testing through experience and further learning is necessary for knowledge wherever possible. Students must be led to understand that their decisions are tentative. Problem-solving is a means, then, of aiding students to find the thrill in learning, knowing, and thinking and of leading them to develop their own need (problem) to learn more and more—to become those too-rare individuals who love learning.

This article includes excerpts from the first chapters of a book by the same authors on the method of teaching. The development of their basic ideas in specific techniques and other aspects of the classroom may be found in Chapters 5 through 16 of the book, *Teaching and the Talented Teacher,* to be published by McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., in the early part of 1959.

Pi Lambda Theta Tea at AASA

A tea is being planned for Pi Lambda Thetans attending the American Association of School Administrators meeting in Atlantic City in February, 1959. The tea will be on Sunday, February 15, 1959, from 4:00 to 5:30 P.M. at the Madison Hotel (Illinois Avenue near the beach). Do plan to attend if you will be at the AASA meeting.

Science, Tradition, and the Curriculum

HERBERT CLARK HUBLER*

RECENT events have lead to demands for greater emphasis on science in education. Public support for education in science is strong. Most of the resistance seems to come from the educators themselves. The situation is reminiscent of Billy Mitchell's court martial and expulsion from the army many years ago for demanding an increased emphasis on air power. It seemed then that everyone saw the military value of the airplane except those who supposedly knew the most about waging a war. Every farmer and construction worker with whom the writer, as a child, came into contact was strongly on the side of Billy Mitchell. The army authorities, however, being familiar with the values of traditional weapons, resisted change. The general public was more pliant and farsighted. Times change, but many are slow to adjust. Although the need for a new emphasis on science in education should be self-evident, there are many who cry "Stop!" even before we start. They say, "Don't overdo it," before anything at all has been done to correct the present neglect—so that obviously these individuals prefer to make no adjustments at all. What is the basis of such opposition?

Should Science Be Equated with War? Some individuals think of science in terms of military rockets, satellites, and atomic bombs rather than in terms of a new vaccine, an antibiotic, or a possible treatment for cancer. On the assumption that science is destructive, these people are reluctant to see the public schools perverted to mere preparers for war. If science is to be blamed for war, by the same reasoning, young men drafted into the service would be blamed for the horrors of the battles in which they were engaged—a fine reward for saving us when we were in trouble! Nuclear research did not cause the war with Japan. It is a regrettable necessity, however, to point out that many casualties were expected to result from the necessity of invading Japan; accordingly, large hospitals were built in this country to receive the injured survivors. Today, in California, the Stanford Research Institute, whose work includes the development of peacetime uses of atomic energy, is housed in structures erected by the government to serve as a hospital to care for the casualties. Research saved us from those casualties, and the hospital was never needed. If we accept the military applications and neglect the even more fundamental peacetime role of science, we are promoting only those aspects we claim to abhor.

"Science Can't Save Us" states one headline, and we are led to believe that only the humanities can lead us to safety. But do the humanities have a monopoly on

* HERBERT CLARK HUBLER, a recipient of the Seventh Science Education Recognition Award, teaches courses in science methods and physical science at Wheelock College, Boston.

humane qualities, as is assumed? It would be as sensible to say that people who read only fiction at the library are more humane than those who patronize also the shelves of nonfiction. Science is a search for truth through observation and experimentation, and its products are predominately peaceful. By providing a common understanding throughout the world, science makes possible a meeting of minds that is not possible for proponents of various ideologies. Co-operation among scientists from a variety of nations and social backgrounds is common and readily achieved. If they had similar objective views, co-operation would be possible for other people as well. For those who understand science, opportunity is seen in terms of research and development rather than in terms of conquest. Science helps to make internal developments more profitable and desirable than foreign wars. The technological developments which result from science help to relieve the pressure for the exploitation of neighboring countries.

Blaming science for wars merely indicates that the one who points the finger has no knowledge of science beyond the headlines. It is very likely that, if blame for the wars of the past could be placed, the individuals blamed would be found with far more training in history, for example, than in science. Many of those leaders who might be held responsible have had an avid interest in history but little, if any, knowledge of science. To imply that a study of history may be responsible for wars is certainly no more a perversion of truth than to place the blame on science. The history taught in the schools traditionally has given emphasis to military exploits. It could stress instead the achievements of society based on peaceful investigations in the laboratory.

Is Science in Opposition to Culture? If the definition of "culture" is narrowly conceived in terms of the folklore, superstitions, fears, ignorance, and poverty of a people, then (no doubt) science is in opposition. But, in a more fundamental sense, the culture of a people is their way of life. In that sense, science and the applications of science are the most distinctive features of our culture. Can a truly cultured person then remain in ignorance of the most outstanding features of his own culture? Should the schools seek to develop cultured people, yet ignore science? We often use the slogan "education for life," yet science is a prominent feature of life today and is often neglected. Culture should be more than art and literature. That meaning has persisted from the Dark Ages, when people looked backward to the art and literature of the ancients, whose achievements were more glorious than anything which subsequently had been accomplished.

One speaker recently expressed himself in opposition to science, declaring he advocated instead the old-fashioned virtues of high ideals. Another speaker insisted the schools should promote "the finer things of life," rather than stress science. But in what way the classics are finer than science was never made clear. Such expressions are based upon a false concept of science as something sordid and unpleasant. Other people have acquired a similar prejudice against the works of Shakespeare, Beethoven, and Rembrandt—but individuals with these aversions are not considered "cultured." For a speaker to suggest that the ideals of the humanities are necessary to control the base impulses of the sciences merely indicates he has a false impression of science. Scientists have dedicated their lives to the pursuit of truth for the common good, and their ideals are likely to be as high as those of any

other group—though not identical in all respects. The Greeks had slaves, which made possible the leisure they devoted to the arts. Because of scientific achievements, today everyone has the leisure to enjoy the arts, if he so wishes. Surely the arts based on slavery are no more ideal than those based upon science. Those who mistrust science do not realize that they are, in effect, objecting to truth and understanding and are expressing a preference for ignorance, inasmuch as science is but the pursuit of knowledge about the world in which we live.

Science is prominent in everyday affairs. Fear is a common reaction to whatever we fail to understand. Primitive people, for example, have many such fears, for there is much they do not understand. The objections to education in science are based upon false impressions of science and what it stands for. Inasmuch as such objections often come from individuals of unquestionably high intelligence who are industrious and conscientious and who in other respects are very well educated, it seems evident that the schools have failed to provide the basic understandings necessary to cope with the problems of the modern world. The objections to science which are commonly heard, being false, are among the most obvious testimonials that some understanding of science is essential for everyone. The schools no longer can afford to neglect instruction in this vital field. No longer should science be limited to those persons who will use it in their work. Instruction should begin early in the elementary school and continue throughout the period of general education in high school and college, just as with social studies, language arts, and other major areas of learning.

Are We Maintaining a Balance? It is being said that we must "maintain a balance" in our educational programs. The statement is made frequently in response to demands for strengthening science teaching. But is the program balanced that we now have? In how many cases are the sciences given as much time each day as the social studies or the fine arts in elementary schools? In the high schools, is English literature stressed more than science for those who will not major in either field? Of course, the real question is, "Are we maintaining a balance in terms of the needs of the world today?"

Back of the objections to science is "the narrow technician" concept. But just how narrow is the training of a scientist? Some technical institutions, such as the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, have increased their requirements in the humanities, because they consider breadth of view a legitimate objective. Has there been a corresponding increase in the science offered to people training for other fields? In light of the tremendous growth in the fields of science—the great expansion of the knowledge available—a true balance should require some increase in the offerings for the student taking general courses. In his college training, the "narrow technician" is required to study in other fields. But do students in other fields study science to the same extent? It is safe to say that most scientists have a better grasp of literature, for example, than most students of literature have of science. Also, the typical student of science has a deep appreciation of good music, but the typical student of music is apt to fear science. Throughout his schooling, the scientist has studied in the traditional curriculum, with emphasis on social studies, language arts, and the fine arts. But does the student who majors in the classics have an equivalent background in the sciences? It would seem the "narrow" label

may be placed upon the wrong graduates of our schools.

It has been said we must not imitate the Russians—that not everyone should become a scientist. "To force everyone into science would be undemocratic." But must we distort the issue before we consider it? Who has recommended that we copy the Russians—that we force everyone to become a scientist? Government scholarships, for example, do not constitute compulsion. They are designed merely to provide opportunities where the need is great. By the same token, the offer of a scholarship from Harvard in Greek literature would constitute compulsion to attend Harvard. "We need talent in all fields," it is true. Such a scholarship to Harvard may induce a talented student to become a scholar, whereas otherwise he might become a construction worker—where talent also is definitely needed. The federal government has proposed that inducements be offered to science teachers not unlike the Smith-Hughes assistance to certain vocational subjects. The violent reaction from educators against such proposals reflects their fear of science. Their fear of science points to their lack of understanding and to the great need for instruction.

If a fire occurred in the classroom, everyone would immediately strive to extinguish it. To protest instead that not everyone should become a fireman would be absurd. Where there is a need, it should be met. In *The Journal of the National Education Association,* it was said that we must not "allow our vision to be so distorted by scientific spectacles that we lose perspective. In the future, as in the past, let us dedicate our schools to the promotion of the democratic objectives of a free society."[1] But perspective can be lost through nearsightedness as well as by observing-spectacles. Fortunately, a democratic society permits rebuttal to clarify an issue. An understanding of science is essential if we are to promote "the democratic objectives of a free society." Scientific procedures also are well recognized by philosophers and other scholars as being excellent examples of democracy in action. There would be no better method to teach democracy than to stress the scientific way of working in education. The curriculum should truly maintain a balance—not merely preserve the status quo.

Responsibility for Decisions. The objections to an increased emphasis on science today are more emotional than logical; hence, they are easily criticized. But more than logic is needed to overcome the emotional resistance. Curriculum revisions always have encountered such bias. Benjamin Franklin and others met similar objections years ago from the Humanists, who preferred that education be limited to the traditional curriculum of classical literature. But with the beginnings of public schools, Latin and Greek seemed of little value to the backwoods farmers. They preferred subjects taught in district schools suitable for life as they lived it. The academy begun by Franklin had a practical emphasis, and (later) the high-school movement was initiated on the same democratic note. Each revision of the curriculum met with agonized reactions. Nevertheless, as we look back on the changes in education, arguments remain; yet, few would prefer an actual return to the three R's and the Latin grammar schools of the early days. Few wish to turn the clock back any farther than their own youth. Today, those who make the decisions

are trained most commonly in history and English. Many seem to overlook the lessons of history, however, for history shows that essential adjustments always have been resisted. Those familiar with an area of learning know its value and, accordingly, resist what seems to be a threat to their cherished field. Eventually, however, the fate which the dinosaur met awaits those who are unable to make adjustments to changing conditions. Limited, reasonable adjustments can be made. Elementary-school teachers can begin to teach science if they are not already doing so. In the secondary schools, literature can be given a slightly broader meaning to include the writings of Copernicus, Mendel, and Lyell as well as those of Longfellow, Wordsworth, and Homer. History can include an account of social changes based on the investigations of Galileo, Pasteur, and Faraday. Other fields, likewise, can adapt to the changing times. Facing realities can provide an interesting challenge, stimulating to student and teacher alike. Children especially enjoy what is real and vital.

The responsibility belongs to everyone, but it is the administration that makes most of the decisions. Fortunately, many administrators do exert real leadership. However, some are reluctant to face their responsibilities. In one case, for example, the principal of a junior high school in a faculty meeting asked for constructive suggestions so that the high standards of the school might be maintained. In that school, large bells in the halls were used to signal the beginning and end of each period. A continuous ringing of the same bells signaled a fire drill. In case of a drill, each teacher would lead his class down the stairway and out the nearest exit. In response to the request of the principal, a teacher suggested that provision be made in case a fire should occur during the five-minute interval while classes were changing. Also, one stairway might be blocked in practice, for fires often race up a stairway as in a chimney. It was suggested that arrangements be made for the teacher to escort them out the nearest exit in case a fire should occur while the children were in the lunchroom, not in the classrooms. No decisions were made at the meeting, but later the principal called the teacher to his office and said, "Our fire drills always have moved smoothly. Recently the captain of the fire department commended us on how rapidly we emptied the building. Let's not do anything now that might create a disturbance and start people talking."

In this example, evasion of responsibility seemed to bring security, but the security was an illusion.

Alpha Omega Chapter, Bradley University, Peoria, Illinois, was installed on October 11, 1958. Alpha Omega is the *eighty-first* chapter of Pi Lambda Theta and the *forty-seventh* college or university chapter.

This Is English Instruction Today

MARJORIE SOUTHARD ROBERTS*

IN THE TUMULTUOUS DAYS in which we live, perhaps it is expedient that we teachers pause to do some scientific thinking and reconstructing of experience with regard to what we teach. It behooves us to take time to think and to determine why and whither we are going.

Teaching English involves a myriad of varieties of subject matter, skills, and creative techniques, and the effective English teacher must realize his role and implement his teaching in accordance with his purposes. Although English is often a vaguely-defined subject and a listing of all the aims of English teaching would be a tremendous task, it is fairly well agreed that the improvement of communication is a large and worthy purpose. The manner in which English teachers fulfill the responsibility of teaching the four facets of communication—listening, speaking, reading, and writing—comprises English instruction today. These facets of communication are a part of what is often labeled the fundamental processes, and the English teacher has a heavy responsibility in teaching the fundamental processes.

In real life, we listen more than we speak; we speak more than we read; and we read more than we write. We should be conscious of these facts as we plan activities for our students. The four facets of communication are interrelated, and we should provide for the students those experiences which will make use of skills in each facet. Listening is hearing with attention, and good listening habits are taught—not caught. Purposeful listening demands a consciousness of purpose on the part of teachers and pupils. Students demand that they have something worthwhile to which to listen and a valid reason for listening. As teachers, we must avoid talking too much ourselves and be sure that the purpose of each listening activity is understood by all students. Just as we have different purposes for reading, each listening situation requires a purpose. If the student is aware of his purpose in listening and learns to adapt his technique to his purpose, he will grow in ability to listen effectively. It is the responsibility of the English teacher to see that students establish some worth-while purposes and patterns for listening. Before they attend a movie or a lecture, the teacher should have the students outline some purposes for listening. This outline might include listening for the answer to a definite question, listening to form an opinion on a controversial issue, listening for something new, listening to directions, or listening for outstanding facts. On the other hand, a student may listen for the sole purpose of trying to reaffirm what he already believes, and this is a narrow, dangerous purpose which we should strive to correct. Straight

* MARJORIE SOUTHARD ROBERTS is an instructor in education and of English in the laboratory school at the University of Missouri.

thinking is closely allied to all the facets of communication and is a prime requisite both for the student and the teacher. A story illustrates the point. Two fellows were walking along, and they saw an old man sitting on a stump seemingly absorbed in thought. One fellow turned to the other and said, "Now there is a man who is thinking." The other replied, "Oh, no, he isn't. He's just reorganizing his prejudices." We have a responsibility for teaching students to differentiate between fact and opinion as they listen.

Closely related to listening is speaking. Teaching students to express themselves clearly and competently is certainly an integral part of the English program. It should be the teacher's role to help each student organize his thoughts and express them logically. Expressing one's self clearly is a technique often sought by adults. They realize the need for this skill and try to acquire it by enrolling in courses. It stands to reason that the child who has had practice in expressing himself during his experiences in the elementary school and the high school is much better prepared to speak with ease in adult life. English teachers can, and should, provide functional speech activities for the students. Experience in using the language through guided conversation, discussion, parliamentary procedure, panel discussions, oral reports, and impromptu talks can be invaluable to our future citizens. Construction of a weekly grading chart divided into the four facets of communication may serve as a check to prevent neglecting any one of the four areas. It is very easy to fall into the pattern of a teacher-centered classroom which penalizes students. Students like to share their ideas, and often a class will reach understanding which could not possibly be achieved by any one member. Free exchange of thoughtful points of view can broaden our horizons, and we should not deprive our students of this privilege.

No one doubts the importance of a careful, thoughtful reader in this age of mass communication, and the English teacher shares in the obligation of helping students become more mature readers. Experience has shown that the unit method of teaching most nearly approaches this worthy goal. One can integrate the entire English program when the work is built around a central theme of learning. One may include skill activities in vocabulary-building, spelling, syllabication of words, phonics, parts of speech, and sentence structure in the literature unit. In fact, the writing activities can arise from the reading assignment and serve as a springboard for the teacher's approach to the study of grammar. This does not mean that we ignore the systematic teaching of grammar; some of this is quite essential. However, if we would meet the needs of the students, we first must find their weaknesses and concentrate on eliminating them. The teaching of grammar then becomes more meaningful and functional for the students. There are certain elements of grammar to be taught at each grade level. But our chief goal is helping students achieve proper usage in speaking and writing. Only through observing their speech and writing can we help them develop the necessary consciousness of appropriate usage. The completion of exercises from a workbook, without understanding, is practically useless. At one time, a criterion of a good teacher was that he covered the pages in a textbook. But all things change, and we change with them. A good composition text or handbook is an excellent teaching aid, but it should be used as such, not as an end in itself. It should serve as a reference book for students to help

them correct their most common errors in speech and writing. The students themselves set the pace for the amount of time to be spent on any given area of composition and grammar, and this will vary with the students and the community in which they live.

In addition to the reading and writing skills to be developed through a unit of study, the teacher strives to help the students acquire a variety of reading tastes. The English room should contain a table or tables holding reading materials ranging from *The Reader's Digest* to the Sunday edition of the *New York Times*. The collection of such material can be done with minimum expense. Students are willing to bring magazines and books to share with others, and pocket-book editions can be purchased for a small sum. Such publications as *Literary Cavalcade* and *Practical English* are excellent aids for students and teacher. For readers who have difficulty, *Basic Reading Skills for Junior and Senior High School* and *The Reading Skill Builder* are valuable. Several standard dictionaries, as well as other reference books, should be among the materials in the English room. Books may be borrowed from the school library and placed in the English room. Students will anticipate reading these extra books as a natural outcome of the unit in progress. The English room can be a pleasant laboratory where students live and work. They feel a part of it because they are constantly contributing for bulletin-board display examples of new words and of articles which they have encountered in their daily reading of newspapers and periodicals. Those students talented in art can share in keeping the room attractive with illustrations, murals, paper sculpture work, and other art activities associated with the unit of study being currently carried on.

Because English overlaps all other subjects, it can be interesting to more students provided we emphasize this close relationship. A set of road maps in the teacher's filing case is not a bad idea, and this can be had from any leading oil company. For example, in reading *The Red Pony*, a study of the map of the state of California can lead to a better conception of the background and setting of the story as well as to help the students increase their Spanish vocabulary. Wonderful maps of all regions of the world, with descriptive notes, are published by *National Geographic Magazine* and can also be a valuable resource for the English teacher.

According to those in institutions of higher learning, the phase of communication which has been neglected in the high school is writing. This is conceivable when we think of the large classes which English teachers face. But we can partially solve the problem of the teacher having to spend long hours correcting papers by using the classroom as a laboratory for writing and, at the same time, supervising the students as they write. Practice in writing short paragraphs is perhaps more practical for both students and teacher. If a student can organize and logically construct one paragraph, he can assuredly add other paragraphs with a little help in using transition words and phrases. Requiring short pieces of different types of writing as a natural activity of the unit of study is both practical and worth-while. It is important that a student understands whether or not he is making progress in writing, and a folder containing examples of work of each student should be kept on file. This folder, which may include a chart of the student's outside reading, can be of value to the student in determining his own progress. It can also serve as a guide in interpreting the student's work to his parents.

Although there are many excellent techniques being utilized in English instruction today, teaching still remains essentially an individual matter. And, as we teach, we must constantly evaluate ourselves, develop our own techniques, and adapt them to the needs of the students whom we teach. Each of us possesses a certain degree of creativeness. Although we must not mistake change for progress, we do know that our living language will change, and we must keep extremely alert to meet the challenges of the future. Nothing can be of more importance to our society and to the world than the basic understanding of others through effective communication. To teach listening, speaking, reading, and writing effectively is a monumental task but a very significant and rewarding one. Francis Bacon said, "Reading maketh a full man, conference a ready man, and writing an exact man." English teachers share in shaping such a man. Although we get discouraged at times, we must never lose sight of our goals, for perhaps Browning was correct when he said, "A man's reach should exceed his grasp,or what's a heaven for?"

ADDRESS CHANGES

Remailing of undelivered *Educational Horizons* is not possible. The national office staff will continue to try to trace addresses of members whose journals cannot be delivered because they failed to notify the office that they were moving. No address changes are made unless members themselves notify the office to do so. The appearance of a new address for a member on a chapter dues list cannot be considered authority to change an address. Therefore, to insure receiving *Educational Horizons* without interruption, it is each member's responsibility to inform the national office PROMPTLY of any change of address. Please indicate the former as well as the new address.

The national office staff would appreciate a notification to that effect if the change of address is for a chapter officer.

Pi Lambda Theta Fellows

The National Board of Pi Lambda Theta, upon recommendation of the Fellowship Awards Committee, has awarded the three Pi Lambda Theta fellowships for 1958-59 for $2,000 each to:

Mrs. Harriet E. Hollander, 5550 Beacon Street, Pittsburgh 17, Pennsylvania
Miss Barbara L. Osborn, 518 Dryden Road, Ithaca, New York
Miss Luciana Visentini, 106 Morningside Drive, New York 27, New York.

Mrs. Harriet E. Hollander is presently a candidate for the Ph.D. degree at the University of Pittsburgh. Her proposed project concerns the effect of subliminal threat on the formation of perceptual discriminations. Subliminal threat refers to minor cues, scarcely perceptible to a subject, which interfere with, and retard the learning of, visual stimuli. One of the chief purposes of the investigation is to devise a method for testing the effect of unrecognizable emotional disturbance on the learning process.

Mrs. Hollander received the B.A. degree from Queens College, New York. As an undergraduate, she majored in psychology. She received the M.S. degree from the University of Pittsburgh, where her thesis was written on the subject of "An Investigation of the Effects of Silent Adaptation to Expectancy of Stuttering on Stuttering Behavior." She is a member of Psi Chi, a psychology honorary association. She has been a research assistant on speech problems of the mentally-retarded and cerebral-palsied child.

Miss Barbara L. Osborn, recipient of the Ella Victoria Dobbs Fellowship, is a research assistant in home economics education at Cornell University and is doing work there toward the Ph.D. degree. The purpose of the study she is undertaking is to construct and validate an instrument which will determine the value patterns of homemaking teachers or prospective homemaking teachers. The study is a part of a department project concerned with identifying factors which contribute to an effective homemaking program in junior- and senior-high schools in New York State.

Miss Osborn received the B.S. degree from State Teachers College, Plattsburgh, New York, and the M.S. degree from Cornell University. She has been a homemaking teacher in a junior- and senior-high school in New York State and held a teaching assistantship at Cornell University. She is presently the president of Mu Chapter of Pi Lambda Theta; she was the delegate from that chapter to the Biennial Council in New York City in 1957.

Miss Luciana Visentini is working toward the Ph.D. degree in social psychology at Teachers College, Columbia University. The project she proposes will deal essentially with the problem of acculturation and social integration of a minority group—the second generation of Italian immigrants. The study will be an intensive analysis of approximately fifteen families living in New York City. The project, besides giving information about a particular group, intends especially to offer a basis for practical educational action and to make a contribution to the theory of social psychology.

Miss Visentini received the *Laurea* degree from Bologna University, Italy; there, after graduation, she worked in the Institute of Psychology. She came to the United States two years ago on a Fulbright scholarship. In 1957, the M.A. degree was awarded by Teachers College, Columbia University. She has been a teacher in a normal school in Italy and has served as research assistant with the Institute of Psychological Research, Teachers College, Columbia University.

The President's Page

DEAR PI LAMBDA THETANS:

The National Board held a three-day meeting in Chicago in late August during which considerable business was transacted and plans were made for the forthcoming year.

Planning for the Twenty-first Biennial Council was a major consideration of the Board. The invitation of the Southern California Council to meet in Santa Barbara was accepted. Tentative dates for the Council have been set for August 25-28, 1959. The National Board will meet on days immediately preceding and following. The attractive facilities and arrangements available on the Santa Barbara campus of the University of California will be described in later announcements. Lois Knowles of the College of Education at the University of Missouri has accepted the chairmanship of the Council Program Committee. The theme suggested by the National Board was the role of the teacher in society. A fuller and deeper understanding of the role of the teacher in education and of the function of education in society appears at this time as a critical need within the profession as well as among laymen.

Helen R. Pearson was appointed by the Board as the installing officer for the eighty-first chapter, Alpha Omega, at Bradley University in Peoria, Illinois, October 11, 1958. Other considerations with regard to extension of Pi Lambda Theta were acted upon by the Board.

Because of the resignation of Gladys H. Watson as chairman of the Fellowship Awards Committee to accept responsibilities abroad, the Board appointed Mary Ellen Oliverio as chairman and Miriam M. Bryan as a member of that committee. Pi Lambda Thetans are reminded that applications for fellowships must be submitted not later than December 1, 1958, to the national office. It is hoped that the number will not be less nor the quality of applications lower than those of 1957.

Members of the Finance Committee met in Chicago prior to the meeting of the National Board for a careful review of the financial status and obligations of the organization and for the formulation of recommendations to the National Board. The revision of the budget was based on receipts and expenditures for the first year of the biennium. In accordance with the national Constitution and Bylaws, the revised budget was submitted to the chapters. In order to carry out some of the recommendations of the Finance Committee which the National Board accepted, it was necessary to propose amendments to the national Constitution and Bylaws. Proposed amendments are submitted to chapters in good standing for ratification or rejection. The National Board devoted considerable time to the recommendations of the Finance Committee and the formulation of policy with regard to related matters. As the membership of Pi Lambda Theta increases, it becomes necessary to modify procedures to expedite the functioning of the association. The reorganization of certain procedures in the national office completed by staff members should facilitate

the handling of routines in the future.

In anticipation of the fiftieth anniversary of Pi Lambda Theta, the Board proposed a special issue of *Educational Horizons* for 1960. Other policies with regard to publications were discussed at length. A policy of long-term planning for *Educational Horizons* was adopted by the Board for the guidance of the Editor. With regard to the *Newsletter,* the Board requested committee chairmen to submit information about committee activities and urged chapters to report events of interest.

During the meeting of the Board, members present had the opportunity to review first drafts of the forthcoming publications: the *Book of Ceremonies,* the *Officers' Handbook,* and *"Chapter Constitution and/or Bylaws Revision Guide."* The revised drafts will be reviewed by Board members and others before publication. The Committee on Publications, under the chairmanship of Roberta Shine, is attempting to complete these projects during the biennium.

With regard to chapter programs, the Board considered that the Twentieth Biennial Council (as reported in the Fall, 1957, issue of *Educational Horizons,* Volume XXXVI, pages 72-79) suggested materials in "How Pi Lambda Theta Activates Its Purposes" which continue to be pertinent to chapter program-planning. The recommendations of the Program Committee called special attention to Section IX on the recruitment and retention of teachers. Edith Ball, chairman of the Program Committee, was not able to meet with the Board because of commitments abroad. During the year, however, the Program Committee will communicate suggestions to chapters for fresh approaches to important problems.

The chapters will also be receiving a communication from the Special Projects Committee at the request of the National Board. It is hoped that chapters can devote some time to discussing their reactions to proposals before making decisions which may commit the association to an action program.

The National Board approved in September the appointment of the following persons to the Nominating Committee: chairman, Helen R. Pearson, Indianapolis Alumnæ Chapter; Muriel Arends, Northern California Alumnæ Chapter; Marion R. Brown, Alpha Epsilon Chapter; Dorothy Sherman, Alpha Rho Chapter; and Merea Williams, Alpha Chapter. It is important as always that chapters participate actively in the process of nominating national officers. Chapters should act in the fall to select and propose qualified members who are willing to serve the organization at the national level. In order to present a well-balanced slate of candidates, the Nominating Committee should have available for its consideration a large number of suggested candidates from the wealth of talent in Pi Lambda Theta. It is hoped that chapters which have not previously participated in the nominating procedure will help in the "talent search" of the Nominating Committee. It is desirable that members of the Board represent, over a period of time, the many interests of Pi Lambda Thetans and the various geographic areas in which chapters are located. Again, chapters are urged to give thoughtful consideration to the matter of nominations and make it a first order of business on fall agendas to act on suggestions to the Nominating Committee.

Perhaps few members have been aware of the association of this organization as an affiliate of the American Association for the Advancement of Science in Section Q, Education. This status permits Pi Lambda Theta some voice in the affairs

of the association with other members of Section Q. During the fall of 1958, individual members of Pi Lambda Theta will receive information about the privileges of membership in the American Association for the Advancement of Science extended to individual members of the affiliated organizations. Participation in the AAAS is one way in which Pi Lambda Theta fulfills its purpose of "interpenetrating various fields of knowledge."

At this meeting of the National Board, the terms of office for Marion E. Wiles and Gladys A. Coryell were terminated. Their distinguished contributions to Pi Lambda Theta are matters of record. The spirit in which they have rendered service has been an inspiration to many members. It was the pleasure of National Board members to honor both Marion E. Wiles and Gladys A. Coryell at that time. The Board took special pleasure in extending to Gladys Coryell its very best wishes on the occasion of the announcement of her forthcoming marriage to Dr. Malbone Watson Graham.

The newly-elected national officers—Dorothy May Abbott (vice-president) and Roberta Shine (first vice-president)—were present during the 1958 meeting of the National Board. At the conclusion of the Board meeting, the newly-elected officers and M. Adeline Olson (re-elected as treasurer) were duly installed. It will be the privilege of Board members and chapters to become better acquainted with new national officers during 1958-59. Chapter visits by members of the National Board will provide opportunities for furthering the acquaintance of chapter members with the national business and with the National Board members. At the same time, National Board members have the privilege of learning about the variety of chapter activities and the ways in which chapters meet the challenge of activating the purpose of Pi Lambda Theta.

SYLVIA VOPNI

DUES REMINDER

National dues are $3.00. The fiscal year is July 1 through June 30. Members whose dues are not received by February 1 are considered delinquent, and their names are removed from the mailing list of *Educational Horizons*. The bookkeeping system used at the national office does not provide for the payment of dues in advance. Nor are unpaid dues accepted after the close of a fiscal year. A member may become a life member upon the payment of $75.00, either in one payment or in annual installments of $15.00 each over a period of not more than five years. National dues and life membership payments become payable July 1.

NATIONAL BOARD

President ..... SYLVIA VOPNI
College of Education
University of Washington
Seattle 5, Washington

First Vice-President ..... ROBERTA B. SHINE
501 Sheridan Road
Evanston, Illinois

Treasurer ..... M. ADELINE OLSON
State Teachers College
Mayville, North Dakota

Vice-President ..... DOROTHY MAY ABBOTT
6814 Raymond
University City 14, Missouri

Vice-President ..... EDITH BALL
35-19 76th Street
Jackson Heights, New York

Vice-President ..... SHATA L. LING
2304 Vinewood Boulevard
Ann Arbor, Michigan

Vice-President ..... MURIEL ANDERSON ROSE
1917 Alcatraz Avenue
Berkeley 3, California

Editor ..... M. VIRGINIA BIGGY
227 Independence Drive
Chestnut Hill 67, Massachusetts

Consultant ..... LOIS KNOWLES
College of Education
University of Missouri
Columbia, Missouri

* * *

Executive Director and Managing Editor ..... CARMEN JOHNSON
1129 Vermont Avenue N.W., Washington 5, D.C.

STANDING COMMITTEES, 1957-59

Committee on Chapter Constitutions and Bylaws
Chairman ..... MAUDE A. STEWART
Director, Graduate Resident Training Program
Ohio State University
Columbus 10, Ohio
Marjorie B. Detlor, Martha J. Kuhlmann, Flora Irene Mata, Julia Trowbridge

Extension Committee
Chairman ..... SHATA L. LING
2304 Vinewood Boulevard
Ann Arbor, Michigan
Lucile Burrall, Violet Davis, Dell Felder, Marilyn Horton, Barbara Leiner, Geneva McDonald, Lois McElveny, Nancy Snively, Madge Stanford, Karen M. Wiseman

Fellowship Awards Committee
Chairman ..... MARY ELLEN OLIVERIO
106 Morningside Dr.
New York 27, N.Y.
Miriam M. Bryan, Olwen M. Jones, Ruth Lofgren, Jeanne Noble

Finance Committee
Chairman ..... JANE M. HILL
3051 Harrison Street N.W.
Washington 15, D.C.
Thelma Chisholm, M. Adeline Olson

Program Committee
Chairman ..... EDITH BALL
35-19 76th Street
Jackson Heights 72, New York
Dorothy May Abbott, Harriett V. Batie, Charlotte D. Elmott, Helen Huus, Judy Jack, Doris E. Jakubek, Helmi Koivisto, Adelle Land, Cherry McGinnis, Ola Lee Means, Anna R. O'Connor, Alice Richardson, Vivian R. Sweeney, Ora Mae Winstead, Marjorie E. Wolfe, Marion E. Wiles, *consultant*

Committee on Public Affairs
Chairman ..... MURIEL A. ROSE
1917 Alcatraz Avenue
Berkeley 3, California
Evelyn C. Banner, Catherine A. V. Lyons, Jessie L. McGlon, Theresia Nelson, Mary C. Pine, Sylvia Smith, Dorothy J. Welch, Jean A. Yosepian

Committee on Public Relations
Chairman ..... RUTH C. ROBERTS
1810 Morningrise Place
Albuquerque, New Mexico
Anita Allen, Beverly Buller, Ruth Chausse, Margaret Walton Clark, Blanche J. Hosack, Alice Rogers, Betty Lou Skiles, Mary Ann Steele, Betty Unanian, Virginia H. Young, M. Virginia Biggy, *consultant*

Committee on Publications
Chairman ..... ROBERTA SHINE
501 Sheridan Road
Evanston, Illinois
Ruth I. Anderson, Panoria Apostol, Elizabeth English, Isabel Hiltbrunner, Mariella L. Lenahan, Barbara Osborn, Martha Pfund, Margaret C. Raabe, Anna M. Rynne, Helen K. Smith, Ruth P. Tangeman, Gladys Wilson.

SPECIAL COMMITTEES, 1958-59

Nominating Committee
Chairman ..... Helen R. Pearson
777 Middle Drive
Woodruff Place
Indianapolis 1, Indiana
Muriel Arends, Marion R. Brown, Dorothy Sherman, Merea Williams

Special Projects Committee
Chairman ..... BETTY BETZ
8111 Roosevelt Way
Seattle 15, Washington
Inez P. Bryant, Cynthia Colvin, Monte Lee Davis, Enid Elser, Norma Boyle Gibson, Viola Hall, Pearle A. Hewitt, Lynette Hughes, Ann Johnson, Alice R. Krehbiel, Arlayne Larson, Carol McSpadden, Marjorie Roberts, Dorothy Sherman, Janet Shuman, Judith Wolfinger, Gladys C. Graham, *consultant*

* * *

Trustees, Ella Victoria Dobbs Fund
Chairman ..... Verna Wulfekammer
810 Leawood Terrace
Columbia, Missouri
Frances Hamilton (Association for Childhood Education), May V. Seagoe

CHAPTER PRESIDENTS AND CORRESPONDENTS, 1958-59

ALPHA (Univ. of Mo.):
President—Mrs. Marjorie Roberts, 5 West Blvd. S., Columbia, Mo.
Correspondent—Mrs. Veralee Hardin, Eastwood Hills, Columbia, Mo.

BETA (Syracuse Univ.):
President—Miss E. Gladys Wood, 237 Palmer Ave., Syracuse 7, N.Y.
Correspondent—

GAMMA (Univ. of Kan.):
President—Miss Dorothy Wohlgemuth, 1602 High Dr., Lawrence, Kan.
Correspondent—Miss Mary Thornton, 1518 Lilac Lane, Lawrence, Kan.

DELTA (Univ. of Pittsburgh):
President—Miss Virginia Hansmann, 533 Giffin Ave., Pittsburgh 10, Pa.
Correspondent—Miss Helen D. Wilson, 5821 Stanton Ave., Pittsburgh 6, Pa.

EPSILON (Univ. of Minn.):
President—Miss Shirley Price, 5106 12th Ave., S. Minneapolis 17, Minn.
Correspondent—

ZETA (Univ. of Wash.):
President—Miss Marilyn Horne, 1624 41st Ave. N., Seattle 2, Wash.
Correspondent—

ETA (Univ. of Pa.):
President—Miss Judith Lieberman, 1011 E. Durham St., Philadelphia, Pa.
Correspondent—

THETA (Univ. of Iowa):
President—Mrs. Faye Strayer, 918 E. Washington St., Iowa City, Iowa
Correspondent—

IOTA (Ind. Univ.):
President—Miss Laura Jean Passow, 928 E. Third, Bloomington, Ind.
Correspondent—Mrs. Evelyn Eckerman, 2513 E. 8th St., Bloomington, Ind.

KAPPA (Univ. of Ore.):
President—Miss Carolyn Frederickson, 1560 Hilyard, Eugene, Ore.
Correspondent—

LAMBDA (Univ. of Chicago):
President—Miss Janet Cook, 5726 Blackstone, Chicago 37, Ill.
Correspondent—

MU (Cornell Univ.):
President—Miss Barbara L. Osborn, 518 Dryden Rd., Ithaca, N.Y.
Correspondent—

NU (Ohio State Univ.):
President—Miss Mariann Walton, 4828 Sharon Ave., Columbus 14, Ohio
Correspondent—Miss Eileen Cozart, Mack Hall, O.S.U., Columbus, Ohio

XI (Univ. of Mich.):
President—Mrs. Adelaide Karsian, 2210 Avalon Pl., Ann Arbor, Mich.
Correspondent—Mrs. Katherine Mancell, 1905 E. Stadium Blvd., Ann Arbor, Mich.

OMICRON (Univ. of Neb.):
President—Miss Fran Gourlay, 2430 S. 13th, Lincoln, Neb.
Correspondent—Miss Sherry Armstrong, 480 N. 16th, Lincoln, Neb.

PI (Wash. State College):
President—Mrs. Arlys L. Tressler, 1205 Maiden Lane, Pullman, Wash.
Correspondent—

RHO (New York Univ.):
President—Mrs. Helen G. Weingarten, 67-85 Austin St., Forest Hills 75, N.Y.
Correspondent—Miss Mildred Lackey, 116 Church St., Keyport, N.J.

SIGMA (Univ. of S. Calif.):
President—Mrs. Virginia Archer, 5162 Sunlight Pl., Los Angeles 16, Calif.
Correspondent—Dr. Gertrude G. Howard, 5258 Village Green, Los Angeles 16, Calif.

TAU (Univ. of N.D.):
President—Mrs. Ginger Johnson, 2103½ 1st Ave. N., Grand Forks, N.D.
Correspondent—

UPSILON (Stanford Univ.):
President—Miss S. Jeannette Clevenger, Kingscote Gardens, Stanford, Calif.
Correspondent—

CHI (Johns Hopkins Univ.):
President—Miss Anne W. Tennant, 122 Dumbarton Rd., Baltimore 12, Md.
Correspondent—

PSI (Univ. of Tex.):
President—Miss Jane Craver, 2711 Nueces, Austin, Tex.
Correspondent—

OMEGA (Univ. of Calif.):
President—Mrs. Dorothy Tarpey, 1140 Winsor Ave., Piedmont 10, Calif.
Correspondent—Mrs. Dorothy Giberson, 927 Indian Rock Rd., Berkeley 7, Calif.

ALPHA ALPHA (Univ. of Ariz.):
President—Mrs. Blanche J. Hosack, 2021 S. Plumer, Tucson, Ariz.
Correspondent—Miss Bernice Erdahl, 1243 E. Waverly, Tucson, Ariz.

ALPHA BETA (Univ. of Wis.):
President—Mrs. Gladys H. Bronson, 1014 Yale Rd., Madison 5, Wis.
Correspondent—Miss Margaret Hanson, 717 W. Lakeside St., Madison, Wis.

ALPHA GAMMA (Boston Univ.):
President—Dr. Olive Eldridge, 14 Ardmore Terr., W. Newton 65, Mass.
Correspondent—Miss Mary K. Carter, 14 Aerial St., Arlington 74, Mass.

ALPHA DELTA (Univ. of Calif.):
President—Miss Lorraine Mathies, 830 20th St., Santa Monica, Calif.
Correspondent—Miss Karla Scott, 4080 Minerva Ave., Culver City, Calif.

ALPHA EPSILON (Columbia Univ.):
President—Miss Anna Kuba, 1230 Amsterdam Ave., New York 27, N.Y.
Correspondent—

ALPHA ZETA (Northwestern Univ.):
President—Miss Edna Saewert, 8717 N. Trumbull Ave., Skokie, Ill.
Correspondent—Miss Diane Froeschle, 2331 Greenwood, Wilmette, Ill.

ALPHA ETA (Harvard Grad. School of Educ.):
President—Miss Margaret R. Shannon, 374 Park Ave., Arlington 74, Mass.
Correspondent—Mrs. Mary C. Austin, 143 Concord Ave., Lexington 73, Mass.

ALPHA THETA (George Washington Univ.):
President—Miss Jane Hill, 3051 Harrison St. N.W., Washington 15, D.C.
Correspondent—Miss Evelyn Nigh, 1 Scott Circle, Apt. 304, Washington 6, D.C.

ALPHA IOTA (Claremont College):
President—Mrs. Edna May Soper, 520 Yale Ave., Claremont, Calif.
Correspondent—Mrs. Opal Hawes, 7801 Turner Ave., Cucamonga, Calif.

ALPHA KAPPA (Pa. State Univ.):
President—Miss Margaret C. Raabe, 210 E. Hamilton Ave., State College, Pa.
Correspondent—Mrs. Phyllis Parkin, 604 N. Burrowes St., State College, Pa.

ALPHA LAMBDA (Southern Methodist Univ.):
President—Miss Kay Foltz, 3014 Daniels, Dallas, Tex.
Correspondent—

ALPHA MU (Univ. of N.M.):
President—Mrs. Frances Shutt, 317 Solano Dr. S.E., Albuquerque, N.M.
Correspondent—Mrs. Gloria Brashear, 3543 Eastern Ave. S.E., Albuquerque, N.M.

ALPHA NU (Univ. of Buffalo):
President—Miss Edith Tolsma, 125 Roycroft Blvd., Buffalo 26, N.Y.
Correspondent—

ALPHA XI (Univ. of Tenn.):
President—Miss Helen Hooper, 2846 Woodbine Ave. N.E., Knoxville, Tenn.
Correspondent—

ALPHA OMICRON (Colo. State College):
President—Miss Martha Fredling, 1521 10th Ave., Greeley, Colo.
Correspondent—Miss Edith McDowell, 1801 11th Ave., Greeley, Colo.

ALPHA PI (Wayne State Univ.):
President—Miss Mildred Sabath, 25 E. Palmer, Detroit 2, Mich.
Correspondent—

ALPHA RHO (Univ. of Colo.):
President—Miss Metza Yaksha, 890 11th St., Boulder, Colo.
Correspondent—

ALPHA SIGMA (Tex. Woman's Univ.):
President—Miss Thetis Ann King, Box 2121, Univ. Hill, Denton, Tex.
Correspondent—

ALPHA TAU (Ball State Teachers College):
President—Miss Thelma Hiatt, 412 Shellbark Rd., Muncie, Ind.
Correspondent—Mrs. Alice Good, Sulphur Springs, Ind.

ALPHA UPSILON (Southern Ill. Univ.):
President—Mrs. Nancy Moon, R.F.D. #2, Murphysboro, Ill.
Correspondent—

ALPHA PHI (Univ. of Fla.):
President—Dr. Joan Carey, College of Educ., Univ. of Fla., Gainesville, Fla.
Correspondent—Miss Ruth Fohl, 115 Ray St., Ocala, Fla.

ALPHA CHI (Long Beach State College):
President—Mrs. Margaret Nevraumont, 2249 Linden Ave., Long Beach 6, Calif.
Correspondent—Mrs. Grace Davies, 3809 Los Coyotes Diagonal, Long Beach 8, Calif.

ALPHA PSI (Los Angeles State College):
President—Mrs. Gladys Sadd, 2840 Wellington Rd., Los Angeles 16, Calif.
Correspondent—Mrs. Sylvia Lewine, 502 N. Crescent Hts. Blvd., Los Angeles 48, Calif.

ALPHA OMEGA (Bradley Univ.)
President—Miss Eliza Ackerman, 524 N. Main St., Morton, Ill.
Correspondent—Mrs. Florence Heinz, R. #1, Brimfield, Ill.

CENTRAL MISSOURI ALUMNÆ (Columbia)
President—Mrs. Oria F. Long, 1701 Wilson Ave., Columbia, Mo.
Correspondent—Miss Margaret McMillan, 9 W. Blvd. S., Columbia, Mo.

CENTRAL OHIO ALUMNÆ (Columbus)
President—Mrs. Inez P. Bryant, 55 Blenheim Rd., Columbus 14, Ohio
Correspondent—Mrs. Georgia Bonner, 558 Walhalla Rd., Columbus 2, Ohio

CHICAGO ALUMNÆ (Chicago area, Ill.):
President—Mrs. Marjorie F. Mills, 1124 Church St., Evanston, Ill.
Correspondent—Mrs. Dorothy Rietz, 3140 W. 101st Pl., Evergreen Park, Ill.

COUNCIL BLUFFS-OMAHA ALUMNÆ (Iowa-Neb.):
President—Mrs. Mary Ann Steele, 1312 N. 52nd St., Omaha 32, Neb.
Correspondent—

DAYTON ALUMNÆ (Ohio):
President—Miss Ruth I. Anderson, 4207 Shroyer Rd., Apt. 3, Dayton 29, Ohio
Correspondent—Miss Anna Lemke, 434 Grand Ave., Apt. 19, Dayton 5, Ohio

DENVER ALUMNÆ (Colo.):
President—Mrs. Ella Walker Snyder, 2390 S. Broadway, Denver 10, Colo.
Correspondent—Miss Alice C. Finch, 4322 Perry St., Denver 12, Colo.

DETROIT ALUMNÆ (Mich.):
President—Mrs. Elizabeth Wilson, 1183 W. Grand Blvd., Detroit 8, Mich.
Correspondent—Mrs. Kathleen Bridge, 18568 Marx, Detroit 3, Mich.

EUGENE ALUMNÆ (Ore.):
President—Mrs. Karen M. Lansdowne, 701 Norkenzie Rd., Eugene, Ore.
Correspondent—Miss Lottie Lee Lamb, 1449 Columbia St., Eugene, Ore.

EVANSVILLE ALUMNÆ (Ind.):
President—Mrs. Ora Mae Winstead, 211 Dreier Blvd., Evansville 12, Ind.
Correspondent—

FORT WAYNE ALUMNÆ (Ind.):
President—Miss Marie Ehle, 127 McKinnie Ave., Fort Wayne 5, Ind.
Correspondent—Miss Emma Kiefer, 2124 Wells St., Fort Wayne, Ind.

GRAND FORKS ALUMNÆ (N.D.):
President—Miss Edith E. Larson, 518 Oxford St., Grand Forks, N.D.
Correspondent—

INDIANAPOLIS ALUMNÆ (Ind.):
President—Miss Panoria Apostol, 4703 E. Kessler Blvd., Indianapolis, Ind.
Correspondent—

KANSAS CITY ALUMNÆ (Kan.-Mo.):
President—Mrs. Isabel Hiltbrunner, 5822 E. 17th, Kansas City 26, Mo.
Correspondent—Miss Augusta Brooks, 6235 Arcadia, Kansas City, Kan.

KENTUCKIANA ALUMNÆ (Ind.-Ky.):
President—Mrs. Mildred Cobb, Route #1, Brownsboro Rd., Louisville, Ky.
Correspondent—Miss Emma Francis, 1601 Spring Dr., Louisville 5, Ky.

LONG BEACH ALUMNÆ (Calif.):
President—Dr. Olive Thompson, 1541 Iroquois Ave., Long Beach 15, Calif.
Correspondent—Mrs. Emily Kauppi, 2636 Knoxville Ave., Long Beach 15, Calif.

LOS ANGELES ALUMNÆ (Calif.):
President—Mrs. Vivian Griffin, 155 Epinard St., Playa del Rey, Calif.
Correspondent—Miss Helen Wade, 2566 Armstrong, Los Angeles, Calif.

METROPOLITAN NEW YORK ALUMNÆ (N.Y.):
President—Mrs. Elsie Wolk, 420 E. 23rd St., New York 10, N.Y.
Correspondent—Dr. Ruth Lofgren, 3310 Avenue H, Brooklyn 10, N.Y.

NORTHERN CALIFORNIA ALUMNÆ (San Francisco Bay area):
President—Mrs. Celia Gifford Snow, 2200 Marin Ave., Berkeley 7, Calif.
Correspondent—Miss Helen F. Holt, 916 Union St., Alameda, Calif.

NORTHERN INDIANA ALUMNÆ (South Bend area):
President—Miss Julia Trowbridge, 632 Pennsylvania Ave., Plymouth, Ind.
Correspondent—Mrs. Myrtle Burns, 307 Seimetz Drive, LaPorte, Ind.

NORTHERN OHIO ALUMNÆ (Cleveland):
President—Mrs. Nancy Zoldak, 2392 S. Belvoir Blvd., Cleveland 21, Ohio
Correspondent—Miss Mildred Owings, 2008 Rossmoor Rd., Cleveland Heights, Ohio

PASADENA ALUMNÆ (Calif.):
President—Mrs. Jean Williams, 1132 Sheraton Dr., La Canada, Calif.
Correspondent—Miss Grace M. McFarland, 907 Monterey Ave., Monrovia, Calif.

PHILADELPHIA ALUMNÆ (Pa.):
President—Mrs. Anne T. deBenneville, 5414 Howland St., Philadelphia 24, Pa.
Correspondent—Mrs. Margaret Efraemson, Merion Gardens, 63rd and City Line Ave., Merion, Pa.

PORTLAND ALUMNÆ (Ore.):
President—Mrs. Lois N. McElveny, 2235 N.E. 37th Ave., Portland 12, Ore.
Correspondent—Miss Helen E. Schaper, 4733 N.E. 18th Ave., Portland 11, Ore.

ST. LOUIS ALUMNÆ (Mo.):
President—Miss Virginia Watts, 1125 Sanford Ave., St. Louis 10, Mo.
Correspondent—Mrs. Marjorie Giest, 15 Mariknoll Dr., Belleville, Ill.

SAN BERNARDINO VALLEY ALUMNÆ (Calif.):
President—Mrs. Alice Krehbiel, 4191 Mountain Ave., San Bernardino, Calif.
Correspondent—Miss Mary Anne Bowers, 3920 Oakwood Pl., Riverside, Calif.

SAN DIEGO ALUMNÆ (Calif.):
President—Miss Helen A. Frazeur, 2755 Broadway, San Diego 2, Calif.
Correspondent—the President

SAN JOSE ALUMNÆ (Calif.):
President—Miss Wynette Fowler, 1242 N. San Pedro St., San Jose 10, Calif.
Correspondent—Mrs. Lois Pryor, 817 N. 2nd St., San Jose 12, Calif.

SANTA BARBARA ALUMNÆ (Calif.)
President—Dr. Charlotte Elmott, 1621 Glendon Ave., Los Angeles 24, Calif.
Correspondent—the President

SANTA MONICA BAY AREA ALUMNÆ (Calif.):
President—Mrs. Elizabeth S. Eby, 10525 Ohio Ave., Los Angeles 24, Calif.
Correspondent—Mrs. Mary Putnam, 1702 S. Palm Ave., Alhambra, Calif.

SOUTHERN INDIANA ALUMNÆ (Bloomington):
President—Miss Pauline Wildman, 524 S. Washington, Bloomington, Ind.
Correspondent—

SPOKANE ALUMNÆ (Wash.):
President—Miss Vivian Sweeney, W. 114 7th, Spokane, Wash.
Correspondent—Mrs. Estella Tiffany, W. 2711 Decatur, Spokane, Wash.

TOLEDO ALUMNÆ (Ohio):
President—Mrs. Carol Knudson, 2731 Merrimac Blvd., Toledo 6, Ohio
Correspondent—Miss Olive McHugh, 1868 N. Cove Blvd., Toledo 6, Ohio

WASHINGTON ALUMNÆ (Seattle):
President—Mrs. Helen Grayum, 11615 Meridian Ave., Seattle 33, Wash.
Correspondent—Mrs. Matilda Gilbreath, 5306 9th Ave. N.E., Seattle 5, Wash.

WESTERN PENNSYLVANIA ALUMNÆ (Pittsburgh):
President—Dr. Catherine A. V. Lyons, 12 S. Fremont Ave., Pittsburgh 2, Pa.
Correspondent—Miss Helen Heazlett, 1044 Blackridge Rd., Pittsburgh 35, Pa.